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The Complete Genome Sequence of the Marine, Chemolithoautotrophic, Ammonia-Oxidizing Bacterium *Nitrosococcus oceani* ATCC19707

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Running Title: *N. oceani* Genome Sequence

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ABSTRACT

The Gammaproteobacterium, *Nitrosococcus oceanus* (ATCC 19707), is a Gram-negative obligate chemolithoautotroph capable of extracting energy and reducing power from the oxidation of ammonia to nitrite. Sequencing and annotation of the genome revealed a single circular chromosome (3,481,691 bp; 50.4% G+C) and a plasmid (40,420 bp) that contain 3052 and 41 candidate protein-encoding genes, respectively. The genes encoding proteins necessary for the function of known modes of lithotrophy and autotrophy were identified. In contrast to betaproteobacterial nitrifier genomes, the *N. oceanus* genome contained two complete *rrn* operons. In contrast, only one copy of the genes needed to synthesize functional ammonia monooxygenase and hydroxylamine oxidoreductase, as well as the proteins that relay the extracted electrons to a terminal electron acceptor were identified. The *N. oceanus* genome contained genes for 13 complete two-component systems. The genome also contained all the genes needed to reconstruct complete central pathways, the tricarboxylic acid cycle and the Embden-Meyerhof-Parnass and pentose phosphate pathways. The *N. oceanus* genome contains the genes required to store and utilize energy from glycogen inclusion bodies and sucrose. Polyphosphate and pyrophosphate appear to be integrated in this bacterium's energy metabolism, stress tolerance and the ability to assimilate carbon via gluconeogenesis. One set of genes for type I RuBisCO was identified, while genes necessary for methanotrophy and for carboxysome formation were not identified. The *N. oceanus* genome contains two copies each of the genes or operons necessary to assemble functional complexes I and IV as well as ATP synthase (one H⁺-dependent F₀F₁-type, one Na⁺-dependent V-type).

INTRODUCTION (→ Fig. 1. TEM of *N. oceani*)

The ammonia-oxidizing bacterium *Nitrosococcus oceani* ATTC 19707 (Fig. 1; Bacteria, Proteobacteria, Gammaproteobacteria, Chromatiales, *Chromatiaceae*, *Nitrosococcus*, *Nitrosococcus oceani*) was the first ammonia-oxidizing bacterium isolated by enrichment culture from seawater (*Nitrosocystis oceanus*, (53)) and it resembles the original type strain, *Nitrosococcus winogradskyi* 1892, which was lost. As a member of the order Chromatiales, the purple sulfur bacteria, *N. oceani* is a member of the evolutionarily oldest taxonomic group capable of lithotrophic ammonia catabolism. To date, *N. oceani* and *N. halophilus* are the only recognized species of gammaproteobacterial ammonia-oxidizing bacteria (AOB). All other cultivated aerobic AOB are Betaproteobacteria and their members have been detected in soils, freshwater and sediments as well as marine environments (40). In contrast, gammaproteobacterial AOB have only been found in marine or saline environments. *Nitrosococcus oceani* has been detected in many marine environments using immunofluorescence (72, 78), and more recently on the basis of cloned gene sequences from DNA extracted from natural seawater (61, 74). In addition to the truly marine environment, *N. oceani* was detected by immunofluorescence and fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) in the saline waters of Lake Bonney, a permanently ice-covered lake in Antarctica (70). *Nitrosococcus halophilus* has been isolated only from saline ponds (38) and has not been detected in other environments by using molecular probes.

The general role of nitrifying bacteria in marine systems is to link the oxidizing and reducing processes of the nitrogen cycle by converting ammonium to nitrate. This conversion is responsible for maintaining nitrate, the major component of the fixed nitrogen pool in the oceans,

which is present almost everywhere below a few hundred meters at concentrations approaching 40 μ M. The deep nitrate reservoir of the oceans, believed to have come about by abiotic processes on the primordial Earth (48), is a huge pool of nitrogen whose availability to primary producers in the surface layer is still controlled largely by physical processes (27). The nitrification process produces oxidized forms of nitrogen that are lost via denitrification and anaerobic ammonia oxidation (anammox) (34, 65). By converting nitrogenous compounds released as waste products of metabolism into NO_x intermediates that can act both as oxidants and reductants for the fixed N removal processes (14, 73), nitrification closes the global nitrogen cycle. Nitrification occurs in both the water column and in sediments of marine environments. In sediments, nitrification is often tightly coupled with denitrification, and can account for a significant fraction of the total oxygen consumption in sediments (80). It has been discovered only recently, that aerobic ammonia-oxidation is also carried out by some Crenarchaeota ((58) and references therein). Könneke et al. (45) reported the isolation of a marine crenarchaeote, *Candidatus Nitrosopumilus maritima*, that was able to grow chemolithoautotrophically by aerobically consuming ammonia and producing nitrite. This physiological observation has been supported by the identification of DNA sequences similar to the genes encoding the three subunits of ammonia monooxygenase (AMO) from AOB (45). On the other hand, the recently completed genome sequence of the Crenarchaeote, *Cenarchaeum symbiosum*, a symbiont of marine sponges (28) predicted to be an Ammonia-Oxidizing Archaeon (AOA), lacked all open reading frames with sequence similarity to genes known to be essential to ammonia-oxidation in all AOB such as hydroxylamine oxidoreductase (HAO) and cytochromes c554 and cm552 (7). Furthermore, the *C. symbiosum* genome lacked the genes for other cytochromes proteins known to control nitrosating stress in AOB (31) except for one (*norQ*) of the four required genes for

functional NO-reductase (28). In contrast, the *C. symbiosum* genome contained numerous genes that encode putative copper blue proteins (54) including one (CENSYa_1582) with significant sequence similarity to the NcgA and NirK protein family, which is implicated in nitrite reduction by AOB (6). Since AMO activity is also copper-dependent, it appears that ammonia oxidation in Archaea is entirely based on the function of copper-containing proteins. Because copper is known to be redox-active only under oxic conditions and because the cytochrome-based core module of bacterial ammonia catabolism (encoded by the *hao* gene cluster) has evolved from bacterial inventory involved in (anaerobic) denitrification (7)), it is highly likely that ammonia-catabolism in the Archaea has evolved fairly late by incorporating an AMO-like function into an ammonia-independent metabolism. Recent phylogenetic analyses of known Amo subunit protein sequences ((28, 58) and M.G. Klotz, unpublished results) suggest, indeed, that the AOA likely obtained their *amo* genes via lateral transfer from AOB. It will thus be interesting to identify genetically and biochemically how the AOA resolved the tasks of aerobic ammonia oxidation and detoxification of the resulting NO_x compounds.

The susceptibility of ammonia oxidizers to inhibition by sunlight (due to the light sensitivity of ammonia monooxygenase; AMO) is probably responsible for the characteristic distribution of nitrification in the water column; maximal rates occur in surface waters near the bottom of the euphotic zone (74). Nitrification rates decrease with increasing depth as the rate of organic matter decomposition (and thus ammonium supply) decreases with depth. As a consequence of both nitrifier and denitrifier activities, the oceans emit large amounts of the greenhouse gas nitrous oxide (57). The total oceanic N₂O inventory is about 2/3 the size of the total atmospheric inventory and the oceanic N₂O flux to the atmosphere is estimated to be 4 Tg N/year (57). It has been shown that nitrous oxide and nitric oxide can be produced by aerobic

AOB either through the reduction of nitrite (NO_2^- ; (17, 66)) or the oxidation of hydroxylamine (NH_2OH ; (35)). Goreau *et al.* (25) reported on N_2O production by a marine *Nitrosomonas* isolate and a culture of *N. oceanus* that had been isolated from the Western Atlantic by Stan Watson. N_2O production was found to be much higher under low than under atmospheric O_2 conditions, indicating that nitrifiers may produce significant amounts of N_2O in the interface between the oxic and anoxic zones. Recent geochemical evidence indicates that most of the N_2O in the ocean is derived from nitrification (56); therefore, the detailed understanding of the marine nitrification process is crucial for any global management strategy of greenhouse gas production. This significance of nitrification in the oceans and its indirect influence on the oceanic carbon budget led to the selection of *N. oceanus* ATCC 19707 as a target for genome sequencing in the Genomes to Life microbial sequencing program of the US Department of Energy.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Nitrosococcus oceanus strain ATCC19707 was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection and maintained at a temperature of 30°C in the dark on marine medium as described previously (1, 39, 59). For the isolation of genomic DNA, cultures were grown in 0.6 and 1-L batches of medium in 2 and 4-L Erlenmeyer flasks, respectively, titrated to pH 8.0 daily with K_2CO_3 .

Library construction, sequencing, and sequence assembly. Genomic DNA was isolated from late-exponential phase cultures of *N. oceanus* strain ATCC19707 as described by McTavish *et al.* (49) modified following the recommendations by the Department of Energy's Joint Genome Institute (DOE-JGI, Walnut Creek, CA). The genome was sequenced using the

whole-genome shotgun method as previously described (16, 23). Briefly, random 3 and 8-kb DNA fragments were isolated and cloned into pUC18 and pMCL200 vectors, respectively, for amplification in *Escherichia coli*. A larger fosmid library was constructed containing approximately 40kb inserts of sheared genomic DNA cloned into the pCC1Fos cloning vector. Double-ended plasmid sequencing reactions were performed by the DOE JGI using ABI 3730xl DNA Analyzers and MegaBACE 4500 Genetic Analyzers as described on the JGI website <http://www.jgi.doe.gov/>.

After quality control of the 60,402 total initial reads of draft sequence, 51,334 were used for the final assembly, producing an average of 9.3 fold coverage across the genome. Processing of sequence traces, base calling and assessment of data quality were performed with PHRED and PHRAP, respectively. Assembled sequences were visualized with CONSED. The initial assembly consisted of 36 contigs. Gaps in the sequence were primarily closed by primer walking on gap-spanning library clones or with PCR products from genomic DNA. True physical gaps were closed by combinatorial (multiplex) PCR. Sequence finishing and polishing added 249 reads and assessment of final assembly quality was completed as described (16).

Sequence analysis and annotation. Automated gene modeling was completed by combining results from Critica, Generation, and Glimmer modeling packages, and comparing the translations to GenBank's nonredundant (NR) database using basic local alignment search tool for proteins (BLASTP). The protein set was also searched against KEGG Genes, InterPro, TIGRFams, PROSITE, and Clusters of Orthologous Groups of proteins (COGs) databases to further assess function. Manual functional assignments were assessed on individual gene-by-gene basis as needed.

Nucleotide sequence accession number. The sequence and annotation of the complete

N. oceanii strain ATCC19707 genome is available at GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ accession numbers CP000127 (chromosome) and NC_007483 (plasmid).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

General features (→ Table 1. Genome features; Figure 2. Circular representation of the genome (chromosome and plasmid maps).

Genome properties: The *N. oceanii* ATCC19707 genome is comprised of a single circular chromosome (3,481,691 bp; 50.4% G+C) and a plasmid (40,420 bp) that contain 3052 and 41 candidate protein-encoding genes, respectively (Fig. 2). Most (91%) of candidate genes were in orthologous clusters ORFs of published genomes and a total of 76.5%, 68.7% and 64.9% had hits with ORFs in the COG, Pfam and InterPro data bases, respectively (Tab. 1). The majority of genes (66.9%) could be assigned a function; however, only 11.4% of these genes were assigned to enzymes and only 8.6% were connected to the KEGG pathways. In contrast, 23.8% of the genes in the *N. europaea* genome were assigned to enzymes and 18.6% were connected to the KEGG pathways (<http://img.jgi.doe.gov>, (16)). The taxonomic breakdown of best BLASTP hits against the KEGG completed genomes database, is as follows: Gammaproteobacteria (1424 genes) followed by Betaproteobacteria (521), Cyanobacteria (183), Alphaproteobacteria (112) and Delta-/Epsilonproteobacteria (121). Individual top hits were with ORFs from *Methylococcus capsulatus* (545) followed by *Nitrosomonas europaea* (224), *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1 (189), *Azoarcus* sp. EbN1 (161), *Pseudomonas putida* (75), *Pseudomonas syringae* (74), and *Geobacter sulfurreducens* (69).

In contrast to betaproteobacterial nitrifier genomes, the *N. oceani* genome contained two complete *rrn* operons that belong to different classes. These operons are located on different replicores, neither of which was near the origin of replication. The *rrn* operon on the plus strand belongs to the class that contains Ala-tRNA and Ile-tRNA genes between the 16S and 23S genes, whereas the *rrn* operon on the minus strand has no inserted genes. While the 16S-23S intergenic region in *rrn1* contains 714 bp, including the two tRNAs, the 16S-23S intergenic region in *rrn2* is only 224 bp – of which 45 bp downstream of the 16S and 107 bases upstream are identical to those positions in *rrn1*. However, the 16S, 23S and 5S rRNA genes themselves are 100% identical.

The plasmid comprises mostly hypothetical and conserved hypothetical proteins. A transposase (Noc_A0021), phage integrase (Noc_A0015) and a small number of other phage related genes along with restriction modification systems are also found on this replicon. A possible replication protein (Noc_A0039), whose only putative homologue (56% similar over 80% of its length) is the RepA protein encoded in plasmid pRA2 from *Pseudomonas alcaligenes* (43), together with a possible partitioning system (Noc_A0013-A0014) may help this plasmid be maintained within the *N. oceani* population.

Families and clusters of foreign and repeat sequences. Surprisingly, we identified several large blocks of genes that were identified as putatively phage-related, indicating that *N. oceani* has been a frequent target for bacteriophages in the open ocean. Ten regions, ranging in size from 6.4 to 44.3-kb (totaling >175 kb), were found to harbor bacteriophage remains, such as phage integrase, terminase, primase, and tail genes. These regions were found to be associated with tRNAs (flanking), restriction modification systems, transposases, virulence-associated and

many hypothetical genes. Other phage hits are not associated with any cluster of genes, but are distributed throughout the genome.

There are five families of identical or nearly identical (>95%) copies of insertion sequence (IS)-like elements that encode putative transposases, the largest family of which comprises 15 copies of an IS that encodes two transposases. Two of the families, with three members each, share ~83% identity and represent an IS superfamily. Interestingly, the genome encodes many predicted transposases (127), some of which cluster in large groups, the largest of which comprises 15 consecutive ORFs (Noc_0003-0017) encompassing >7 kb. Also, of the 14 predicted phage integrase genes or pseudogenes, two were nearly identical frameshifted integrase genes (Noc_0080, Noc_1095).

Two identical copies of the Tu translation elongation factor (Noc_2326, Noc_2338) and two gene copies encoding a fatty acid desaturase, a metalloprotein were identified. Additionally, there are two copies of a gene annotated as ammonia permease (Noc2700 and Noc2701); however, both were much shorter than AmtB proteins from other organisms and aligned only with their C-termini. Furthermore, the region containing the membrane-spanning domains lacked amino acid residues that are conserved in other AmtB proteins. Hence, operation of AmtB-facilitated ammonia uptake by one or both products of the Noc_2700 and Noc_2701 genes needs to be experimentally verified. In addition to these examples, we have found several lines of evidence suggesting that genes or gene families are undergoing duplication and diversification. Examples include Noc_1310 which appears to be a truncated C-terminal version of Noc_1552, a full-length phosphoenolpyruvate-protein phosphotransferase, and the gene Noc_0725, which is only ~70% identical to one of three nearly identical copies (Noc_0343, Noc_0724, Noc_0973) of a predicted hypothetical protein of 492 amino acids.

Information processing and modification systems: The genome of *N. oceanus* contains the complete sets of genes necessary to encode DNA-directed DNA polymerases I (Noc_0554) and III (Noc_0002, Noc_0288, Noc_0846, Noc_1659, Noc_2593, Noc_2663, Noc_2814) as well as multiple copies of the gene encoding the epsilon subunit of Pol III. Genes encoding Pol II were not identified. *Nitrosococcus oceanus* is equipped with a full complement of genes to carry out repair of DNA lesions (*uvrABCD*, *recFRO*, *mutSHLT*, *radC*, *recN*) and recombination (*recA*, *recD* and *recG*; *ruvABC*), which may be necessary as a consequence of exposure to mutagens and uptake of foreign DNA. The genome of *N. oceanus* contains a high number of open reading frames (a total of 24) that code for type I and type III site-specific restriction endonucleases (REs) as concluded from a comparison with available complete genome sequences of ammonia-oxidizing Betaproteobacteria and closely related Gammaproteobacteria whereof the next highest number of ORFs was found in the genome of *Xylella fastidiosa* Ann-1 (a total of 13). The presumed function of these restriction modification systems is protection against phage infection and foreign DNA by recognizing specific methylation patterns and distinguishing between host and foreign DNA (11, 15). The reason for this high number of REs in the genome of *N. oceanus* is presently unclear; however, a similarly high number of ORFs encoding site-specific endonucleases have been identified in the yet unfinished genome of *Nitrosococcus halophilus* (A.F. El-Sheikh and M.G. Klotz, unpublished results).

The genes encoding the subunits of DNA-directed core RNA polymerase (EC:2.7.7.6) did not reside in a single gene cluster in the *N. oceanus* genome. Whereas the genes encoding the beta and beta' subunits were arranged in tandem (Noc_2331 and Noc_2330, respectively), the gene encoding the alpha subunit resided upstream of this tandem as gene Noc_2300. A gene encoding an omega subunit (COG1758) was also found (Noc_1213). The genome also contained

a variety of genes that encode alternative sigma factors, some of which were found in multiple copies (see below).

Metabolism and Transport: Genomic Basis of Ammonia-Lithotrophy

Energy metabolism - Acquisition of reductant from the environment: A cluster of three contiguous genes encoding the subunits of ammonia monooxygenase (Noc_2503-2501) were found to be organized in overlapping operons as described previously (1, 59). No additional functional *amo* genes or *amo* pseudogenes were found in the genome. As reported previously, the terminator of the *amo* operon was succeeded by a transcriptional unit containing the *orf5* gene (Noc_2500) (59). An additional *orf5*-like gene was found as an orphan in the genome (Noc_3006). The deduced Orf5 protein sequences revealed a signal peptide and an additional membrane-spanning domain at its C-terminus. Such *orf5* genes with a high degree in sequence identity and in conservation of synteny have also been identified in betaproteobacterial nitrifier genomes downstream of the *amo* operon (U92432, AF016003); however, as one of two sequence-related genes in an *orf45* transcriptional unit (16). Interestingly, an *orf5* homologue was also found in the whole genome sequence of the gammaproteobacterial methanotroph, *Methylococcus capsulatus* (Bath) (MCA2130), where it was not in proximity of either of the two gene clusters that encode particulate methane monooxygenase (pMMO), a homologue of AMO (29, 59). Instead, the *orf5* gene was resident in a transcriptional unit together with a gene that encodes a *pan1*-type multi-copper oxidase (MCO; MCA2129), which is likely a homologue to the *pan1*-type MCO-encoding gene found upstream of the *amo* operon in the *N. ocean*i genome (Noc_2506). Because both AMO and pMMO can oxidize ammonia to hydroxylamine and because of the sequence and genome organizational similarities between the associated *mco* and

orf5 genes in the *N. oceanii* and *M. capsulatus* genomes, a functional role of their membrane-associated expression products in transfer of electrons or intermediates related to ammonia oxidation is proposed.

The oxidation of hydroxylamine is the core of ammonia catabolism as it provides electrons for redox-dependent proton pumping (cytochrome *bc₁* complex, terminal cytochrome *c* oxidase). Cytochrome P460 (Noc_0890) is a likely ancient hydroxylamine (and nitric oxide) dehydrogenase suited to detoxify the mutagenic hydroxylamine at low turnover rates (9, 10). However, the electrons gained during the oxidation process cannot be transferred directly to the cytochrome *bc₁* complex in the membrane and are likely relayed via the periplasmic soluble cytochrome *c552* (Noc_0751) to the terminal oxidase. While this pathway contributes to the proton motive force, it is an inefficient use of reductant. A more efficient pathway occurs when hydroxylamine is catalytically oxidized by hydroxylamine oxidoreductase (HAO, Noc_0892) and electrons are funneled via cytochromes *c554* (Noc_0894) and *cm552* (Noc_0895) to the ubiquinone pool (Q/QH₂, Noc_1248-1252). The structure and sequence conservation of the HAO-*c554*-*cm552* pathway in *N. oceanii* was recently evaluated (7), based in part on the whole genome sequence reported in this paper. The reduced quinone pool provides reductant to the AMO complex, to the cytochrome *bc₁* proton-pumping complex (Noc_0297–0299) in the electron transport chain, and to the NUO complex I responsible for reverse electron transport needed to generate NADH (see below). In addition, numerous uncharacterized MCO-encoding genes were found in the genome (Noc_0889 and Noc_2605, Type-1 MCOs; Noc_1542, exported MCO; Noc_1741, copper resistance protein), which need further characterization to assess their involvement in catalytic and electron transfer processes of catabolic pathways in *N. oceanii*. In addition, the finding of a gene encoding the red copper protein, Nitrosocyanin (Noc_1090), in

the *N. oceani* genome suggests that this protein is unique to and important for ammonia catabolism.

The hydrolysis of urea to ammonia and carbon dioxide can be carried out in *N. oceani* by the ATP-independent hetero-multimeric nickel enzyme urea-amidohydrolase (urease) (39). Ureolysis could be beneficial to the cell because it produces *N. oceani*'s sole sources for energy and reductant (ammonia) and carbon (CO₂). Given the low concentration of dissolved urea in the oceans, the role of urease in this organism is unclear.

Some betaproteobacterial nitrifiers can utilize H₂ (12). However, the genome of *N. oceani* did not contain any genes that encode subunits of a hydrogenase, which is in agreement with the fact that *Nitrosococcus* cannot grow on H₂ as the sole source of energy and reductant.

Energy metabolism - Electron flow, generation of universal reductant, generation of the proton gradient and ATP production. The gene profile for *N. oceani* reveals complete sets of genes for electron transfer from NADH to O₂ via NADH quinone oxidoreductase (Complex I), cytochrome bc₁ complex (Complex III) and a Cu-aa₃ type cytochrome *c* oxidase (Complex IV). Coupled with genes for a complete tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and glycolytic pathway, it seems that *N. oceani* has the potential to gain energy through the oxidation of organic compounds. A complete pentose phosphate pathway provides an alternative mechanism for oxidizing sugars and generating NAD(P)H. It appears that the obstacle to an organotrophic mode of catabolism is *N. oceani*'s inability to import suitable organic substrates. When using ammonia as the energy source (lithotrophy), there is a need to generate NAD(P)H through reverse electron flow and a complete TCA cycle is not needed. The complexes involved in electron flow, generation of reductant and the proton gradient, and production of ATP are described.

Two complete yet different sets of genes encoding Complex I (NDH-1/NADH Quinone oxidoreductase) are present in the genome of *N. oceanii*. Genes Noc_1115-1127, which encode one copy of Complex I, are most similar to Complex I genes found in other Gammaproteobacteria. This operon contains only 13 genes; the c and d subunits are fused into a single gene. The second set of genes encoding a Complex I (Noc_2552-2565) includes genes with top blast hits to *N. europaea* (6 genes), to other Betaproteobacteria (3 genes), and to Gammaproteobacteria (5 genes). The role of these distinct complexes in *N. oceanii* is unknown. It may be that the complex with the strongest similarity to that found in *N. europaea* plays a role in reverse electron flow when ammonia is the sole electron donor, whereas the gammaproteobacterial complex may be important in forward electron flow associated with NADH oxidation. The *N. oceanii* genome also contains the genes needed to encode a Na⁺-transporting NADH:ubiquinone oxidoreductase (Noc_0970, Noc_1170-1174).

The presence of candidate genes for a Na⁺-dependent complex I (Noc_0970, Noc_1170-1174), a Na⁺-dependent V-type ATPase (Noc_2081-2089), and several Na⁺/H⁺ antiporters (Noc_0159, 0521, 1282, 2134, 2952) raises the possibility of a sodium circuit in addition to the proton circuit in *N. oceanii*, which is likely an adaptation to *N. oceanii*'s high salt environment. Under chemolithotrophic conditions, reverse operation of the sodium-dependent Complex I in the plasma membrane could generate additional NADH; however, the sodium-dependent ATPase would be needed to remove excess sodium from the cytoplasm. Under mixotrophic conditions, whether lithoheterotroph or organoautotroph, a sodium gradient might help provide at least some of the organic needs of the cell through import (4). Our finding of several sodium-dependent transporters in the genome (Noc_0779, 1365, 1575, 1600, 2446, 2711) support this possibility; however, operation of the sodium-dependent ATPase would, again, be needed to

remove excess sodium from the cytoplasm. If import of certain organics enable *N. oceani* of organotrophy, additional NADH could be generated. The additional NADH produced by the sodium circuit (Na^+ -dependent complex I and transporters) on the expense of ATP generated by the proton circuit, could serve the “forward” complex I as an extension of the bacterium’s electron transport chain thereby effectively converting a sodium-motive force into a proton-motive force. This could be of utility for chemotaxis and proton-dependent transport.

The genes encoding a ubiquinol-cytochrome *c* reductase (the cytochrome bc_1 complex) are located in an operon (Noc_0297-0299). *Nitrosococcus oceani* has genes encoding two complete terminal cytochrome *c* oxidases (COX), both of the Cu- aa_3 type. One complex (Noc_3044-3047) appears to be of gamma- and betaproteobacterial descent (*Pseudomonas/Nitrosomonas*) and the other (Noc_1244--1247) of Bacteroidetes/Chlorobi decent. There are two additional copies of the genes for subunit 1 and subunit 2, but not for subunit 3. In addition, there are eight copies of genes encoding Class I *c*-type cytochromes.

Additional electron sinks are also encoded in the genome, i.e., there are three di-heme cytochrome *c* peroxidases (Noc_0488, Noc_1263, Noc2697). A partial denitrification pathway is present, including a Cu-type nitrite reductase (*nirK*; Noc_0089) and nitric oxide reductase (*nor*; Noc_1847-1851). However, genes for nitrate reductase (Nar) and nitrous oxide reductase (Nos) were not identified.

Under lithotrophic conditions, the proton gradient is presumably generated by the action of the quinol-cytochrome *c* oxidoreductase and cytochrome *c* oxidase. Under organotrophic conditions, we assume that one or both of the NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductases could also contribute to the generation of the proton gradient. In addition, gene Noc_1901 encodes a proton-translocating inorganic pyrophosphatase, which, in the presence of a flux of pyrophosphate,

could contribute to the generation of a proton gradient (Fig. 3). Alternatively, the enzyme could use the proton gradient to generate pyrophosphate necessary for glycolysis and other processes. A potential source of pyrophosphate could be polyphosphate since a polyphosphate kinase is present (Noc_2388). ATP formed from degradation of polyphosphate could release pyrophosphate through the action of one of the many nucleoside diphosphate hydrolases (NUDIX hydrolases) encoded in the genome (Noc_0193, Noc_0306, Noc_2018, Noc_2420, Noc_2512, Noc_2643, Noc_2749).

A typical proteobacterial H^+ -translocating FoF1-type ATP synthase is encoded in an operon (Noc_3073-3080). Additionally, the genome also encodes a bacterial V-type ATP synthase (Noc_2081-2089). Subunits A through I, with the exception of G, are encoded in this operon. A gene encoding subunit G does not appear to be present in the *N. oceani* genome; however, subunit G is not present in all bacterial V-ATPases (46). It appears to function with subunit D in formation of a peripheral stalk. Genes for subunits A and B, which form the active site of the enzyme, are highly conserved while the remaining genes in the cluster are less well conserved.

Energy storage strategies - Sucrose Synthase, Sucrose-Phosphate Synthase:

Nitrosococcus oceani has genes encoding a sucrose synthase (SuSy; Noc_3068) and sucrose phosphate synthase (SPS; Noc_3069). Sucrose synthase in plants functions predominantly in the degradation of sucrose (47). Sucrose phosphate synthase functions in plants to synthesize sucrose phosphate and sucrose phosphate phosphatase completes the synthesis of sucrose in plants. A separate gene for sucrose phosphate phosphatase is not present in the genome of *N. oceani*; however, gene Noc_3069 is a fusion of the genes for sucrose phosphate synthase and sucrose phosphate phosphatase. The HAD triad conserved in this superfamily of

glycohydrolases is encoded in gene Noc_3069. UDP-glucose is the glucosyl donor for both enzymes, and gene Noc_2280 encodes a UTP glucose-1-phosphate uridylyltransferase. Gene Noc_3067 encodes a fructokinase that could make the fructose-6-phosphate required by sucrose phosphate synthase.

Sucrose synthesis in bacteria is not well documented or understood (47). Sucrose and sucrose synthesizing activities were detected in two species of halotolerant methanotrophs, *Methylobacter alcaliphilus* 20Z and *Methylobacter modestohalophilus* 10S (37). Genes for sucrose synthesis have been identified, so far, in just a few Proteobacteria, including *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans* and *N. europaea*. The genes are also present in cyanobacteria where their function in sucrose synthesis has been demonstrated. Their role in *N. oceanii* is unknown. Perhaps sucrose can serve as an osmoprotectant, as has been suggested for other prokaryotes.

Energy storage strategies - Carbon Storage Products: The genome of *N. oceanii* also contains genes encoding the five enzymes necessary for the synthesis of glycogen from fructose-6-phosphate. The genes encoding glucose-1-phosphate adenylyl transferase (Noc_0905) and 1,4-alpha glucan branching enzyme (Noc_0904) are contiguous. The gene for phosphoglucomutase was identified in *N. oceanii* (Noc_1719) but genes necessary for the synthesis of poly beta-hydroxybutyrate do not appear to be present in the genome of *N. oceanii*.

Central carbon metabolism: The gene profiles are consistent with complete pathways for glycolysis (from phosphorylated sugars or glucose) and gluconeogenesis. However, the mechanism for the interconversion of fructose-6-phosphate and fructose-1,6-bisphosphate is not clear. Gene Noc_0021 encodes fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase. A candidate for an ATP-dependent phosphofructokinase is not present, but gene Noc_2846 shows some similarity to genes encoding

diphosphate-fructose-6-phosphate 1-phosphotransferase (EC:2.7.1.90, pyrophosphate-dependent phosphofructokinase). Both a membrane-bound, proton-translocating pyrophosphatase (Noc_1901) and soluble pyrophosphatase (Noc_1134) are encoded, providing a mechanism to hydrolyze pyrophosphate generated during gluconeogenesis. The proton-translocating enzyme could also use energy from the proton gradient to synthesize pyrophosphate necessary for glycolysis.

The genes encoding a complete pentose phosphate pathway are also present. We cannot determine if glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase would couple to NADP^+ (as is most often the case) or NAD^+ (which occurs less frequently). A transhydrogenase, encoded by genes Noc_0261 and Noc_0262, would allow transfer of reductant from NADH to NADP^+ and from NADPH to NAD^+ .

All the genes necessary for a complete TCA cycle are present. Of particular interest was the presence of genes encoding alpha-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase because this enzyme activity was missing in several obligate chemolithotrophs, including *N. europaea* (30). The absence of alpha-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase activity would create a break in the TCA cycle that would preclude organotrophy; however, if present, the role of alpha-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase in these exclusively or predominantly lithotrophic organisms is not known. As was the case for *N. europaea* (16), the genes encoding the three subunits (E1-3) of alpha-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase were identified in the *N. oceani* genome and they were contiguous (Noc_0111-0113). Because pyruvate dehydrogenase catalyzes a reaction mechanistically similar to that of alpha-ketoglutarate dehydrogenase and has a similar subunit structure, one gene (*lpd*) encodes the E3 subunit for both enzymes in many organisms. However, in *N. oceani*, pyruvate

dehydrogenase is encoded by separate genes, Noc_1254-1256, which includes the gene for subunit E3.

Amino acid and nucleotide metabolism: The *N. oceanii* genome contains genes encoding the biosynthesis of the twenty amino acids required for the synthesis of proteins. Unless otherwise indicated, all amino acids mentioned were the L-form. The genes identified indicate most pathways are similar to previously identified synthesis pathways (5, 26, 68, 69, 77) and the genes encoding the enzymes have high similarity values with those found in other Proteobacteria, most of them with best matches to *Methylococcus capsulatus* or within the pseudomonads. While most biosynthetic pathway elements have been identified, missing enzymatic steps are typically involved with dual function enzymes that may be difficult to identify based on sequence alone (for example Noc_0176 encodes 3-phosphoshikimate 1-carboxyvinyltransferase with dual functions (EC:1.3.1.1 and EC:2.5.1.19)). In contrast, few amino acid degradative enzymes (catabolic enzymes) or specific transport genes were identified. Scavenging from leucine, valine and isoleucine may be possible. Several transaminases were identified but most could not be assigned to specific amino acids. Special attention was paid to amino acid biosynthetic functions found in the last common ancestor as indicated by their universal distribution in the three domains of life (44).

Several large amino acid biosynthetic operons were identified including 1) a mixed function supraoperon similar to that found in *Pseudomonas* encoding aromatic amino acid biosynthesis (76) and the *his* operon (22). The aromatic supraoperon is found encoded by Noc_0172-0177. The dual-function chorismate mutase/prephenate dehydratase P-protein is encoded by gene Noc_0174. The histidine biosynthetic genes are not in a single cluster and are located in the genome as genes Noc_2778-2779 (*hisDG*) and Noc_3051-3057 (*hisCBHAFIE* and

hitA). Split organizations of the *his* operon are relatively common and were also found in *N. europaea* (16, 22). The genes *hisI* and *hisE* overlap by 8 bp but do not appear to be fused. The gene encoding histidinol phosphatase (EC:3.1.3.15, Noc_0374) was found outside of the operon.

In the genome of *N. oceanii* 20 aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (AARS) were identified, including two forms of LysRS (Class I and II) and, two distinct GlxRS (EC:6.1.1.17), but missing AsnRS (EC:6.1.1.22) and GlnRS (EC:6.1.1.18). The most common organism for the top match for the AARS was *Methylococcus capsulatus*, as is the case for the overall taxonomic distribution of top matches. The Class II aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases for Phe and Gly have two non-identical subunits and genes for both the alpha and beta subunits have been identified adjacent to each other in the genome. While no AARS was identified as the specific GlnRS-type (EC:6.1.1.18), it is likely that this function is mediated by the product of genes Noc_0264 or Noc_2250, the non-discriminatory type GlxRS. Genes encoding a possible glutamyl-tRNA-Gln amidotransferase (*gatCAB*) were found in the genome although *gatB* (Noc_2014) is separated from *gatCA* (Noc_2635-2636). So an indirect route for synthesis of glutamyl-tRNA is probable. The sequence data alone are insufficient for designating either of glx-RS genes specifically a discriminatory role. The presence of two genes does not appear to be a recent duplication event as the peptides are more similar to their homologues in *Methylococcus* than to each other (only 44% identical to each other over 315 aligned residues versus 55 and 67% identical to the *Methylococcus* peptides).

No candidate for AsnRS was identified in the genome. The AspRS encoded by gene Noc_0302 does contain the GAD domain typically found in AspRS involved in the indirect transamination route to Asn—tRNA-^{ASN} synthesis. The *gatCAB* encoded transamination function has a likely role in this pathway. Interestingly, the genome contains several distinct asparagine

synthetase genes of the glutamine dependent *asnB* type (Noc_0777, Noc_1965, Noc_1975, Noc_2478). It is somewhat surprising but not without precedent (51) that multiple *asnB* genes are present in an organism without an identified *asnRS*.

Although typically individual organisms contain only one class of LysRS, genes encoding both classes of LysRS have been identified in the genome of *N. oceani*. This case of LysRS existing in both Class I and Class II forms in the genome of *N. oceani* is the only known bacterial exception to the AARS ‘class rule’ (60). The only known examples of the presence of both classes of LysRS in a single genome are in the Archaea, *Methanosarcinia barkeri* and *M. acetivorans*. In *N. oceani*, the class I LysRS is encoded by gene Noc_1618 with the best match to the *M. barkeri* LysRS. Both selective retention and horizontal gene transfer have played roles in the distribution of Class I LysRS in bacteria (2). The gene Noc_2625 encoding 356 amino acids represents the C-terminal region of Class II LysRS with an intact core domain (best match is to *Pseudoalteromonas haloplanktis* TAC125 (CAI85572)). Several other Gammaproteobacteria have a similar protein as described in COG 2269. In *N. oceani* this combination may be an example of gene displacement of the LysRS Class II by a functional LysRS Class I gene (33). Alternatively, in *M. barkeri* both forms are involved in the incorporation of the rare amino acid, pyrrolysine into the enzyme monomethylamine methyltransferase. This is the first report of the presence of Class I and Class II LysRS genes together in a bacterial genome (62).

Genes for the synthesis of all five purine and pyrimidine nucleotides are present. In contrast, genes for degradation are very limited. There appears to be no capacity to catabolize nucleotides with the exception of uridine, which can only be converted to pseudouridine.

Transport: Approximately 263 ORFs in *N. oceani*, about 9% of the total, are involved with transport. Included are *P-P*-bond-hydrolysis-driven transporters, electrochemical-potential-

driven transporters, and channels/porins from a large number of protein families (Table 3). Predominant among these are 23 ATP Binding Cassette (ABC) type transporters (85 genes) for a variety of organic and inorganic substrates, the Resistance-Nodulation-Cell Division (RND) family (26 genes) of H⁺-antiport driven efflux transporters and a large number of genes (22) involved with iron transport.

The *N. oceani* annotation lists at least 22 genes involved with iron transport. Iron transport is particularly important due to the number of hemes integral to hydroxylamine oxidoreductase and other cytochromes in the energy generating NH₃ oxidation pathway. Eleven TonB-dependent iron siderophore receptors were identified (Noc_0321, Noc_0323, Noc_0326, Noc_0541, Noc_0859, Noc_1269, Noc_1430, Noc_1489, Noc_1820, Noc_1925, Noc_2872) including two TonB-dependent receptors for ferrienterochelin (Noc_0859, Noc_1269) and two for ferrichrome (Noc_0321, Noc_0323). Unlike *N. europaea*, where many TonB-dependent receptors are adjacent to genes encoding FecIR two-component sensor/regulatory proteins involved with iron uptake, this was not the case for the TonB-dependent receptors in *N. oceani*. No homologues of FecI or FecR were identified in the genome. However, two genes encoding the ferric uptake regulator (Fur) were present (Noc_1194, Noc_2424) which may serve to regulate the iron siderophore receptor expression. *Nitrosococcus oceani* has genes for the synthesis of the hydroxamate-type siderophore aerobactin (Noc_1811-1814) and an aerobactin receptor (Noc_1820). Additional iron transporters in *N. oceani* included an ABC-type Fe³⁺/cobalamine siderophore transport system (Noc_0838-0840) and a high affinity Fe²⁺/Pb²⁺ transporter (Noc_0164). While Fe²⁺ may not be abundant in marine environments, it may be formed in the periplasmic space by a multicopper oxidase. The components of the TonB/ExbB/ExbD type membrane energy-transducing complex were present in multiple copies

(TonB: Noc_0369, Noc_0610; ExbB: Noc_0142, Noc_0607-0608, Noc_2673; ExbD: Noc_0143, Noc_0609, Noc_2674). No receptors for Fe^{+3} -citrate or Fe^{+3} -coprogen were found. In contrast to *N. oceani*, the betaproteobacterial AOB *N. europaea* has over 100 genes involved in iron transport including genes for receptors for Fe^{+3} coprogen but does not synthesize any siderophores (16).

In addition to iron transport, a number of uptake systems (67 genes) for other inorganic ions were identified. Inorganic N may be imported either as nitrite via a formate-nitrite (FNT family) transporter (Noc_0109) or via a putative ammonia/ammonium permease (Amt) (Noc_2700-2701). Sulfate could be imported via a sulfate permease (SulP family) (Noc_1626) which may function as a $\text{SO}_4^{2-}:\text{H}^+$ symport or a $\text{SO}_4^{2-}:\text{HCO}_3^-$ -antiport, or by a sodium:sulfate symporter (Noc_1175). Phosphate transporters included two ABC transporters (Noc_2396-2399, Noc_0581-0584) and two phosphate-selective porins (Noc_2417-2418) (see below). A number of metal ion uptake and efflux systems were identified including an ABC transporter system dedicated to $\text{Mn}^{2+}/\text{Zn}^{2+}$ transport (Noc_2421-2423), a CorABC-type $\text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}$ ion channel of the MIT family (Noc_0240, Noc_1416, Noc_2263), three divalent cation transporters for $\text{Mg}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Ni}^{2+}$ of the MgtE family of magnesium transporters (Noc_1840, Noc_1785, Noc_2801), and three divalent heavy-metal cation transporters (Noc_0092, Noc_04234, Noc_1342). Efflux systems include two Small Multidrug Resistance (SMR) family transporters of cations and cationic drugs (Noc_0601, Noc_2235), CopCD copper export proteins (Noc_1741-1742), and four CDF-type cation efflux proteins ($\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Cd}^{2+}$) (Noc_0595, Noc_1534, Noc_1782, Noc_2871). Other ion transporters include a chloride channel protein EriC (Noc_0358), and an MFS-type cyanate transporter (Noc_1456). Two P-type cation transporting ATPases were found (Noc_1406, Noc_2130).

Likely of importance to *N. oceanii*'s salty habitat in the oceans are a number of monovalent cation transporters. Several Na⁺/H⁺ antiporter systems were found including a NhaD-type (Noc_1492), a NhaC-type (Noc_2134), and two NhaP-type (Noc_0159, Noc_0521). These play important roles in maintaining intracellular pH and conferring salt-tolerance. Five genes of the Small Conductance Mechano-sensitive Ion Channel (MscS) family (Noc_0108, Noc_0602, Noc_1030, Noc_1853, Noc_1914) were found which play a role in fast osmoregulatory responses. Other transport systems identified included the genes encoding both the NAD-binding component (Noc_3020, Noc_3064) and the membrane component (Noc_0960, Noc_2194, Noc_2952) of the KefB-type K⁺ transport systems, a Trk-type K⁺ uptake system (Noc_0242, Noc_1639-1640), and two DASS family divalent anion/Na⁺ symporters (Noc_1175, Noc_2446).

The genome of *N. oceanii* revealed only a few transporters for importing organic compounds. ABC-type transporters may import dipeptides/oligopeptides (Noc_1344, Noc_1768, Noc_2770-2773), proline/glycine betaine (Noc_0539-0540), and unspecified sugars (Noc_0279-0282). Other transporters included an amino acid transporter (Noc_3063), a lactate permease (Noc_1578), and urea transporter (Noc_2884). A number of potential transport systems for dicarboxylates were found including a TRAP-type C4-dicarboxylate permease (Noc_0598, Noc_0709-0710), a Tellurite-resistance/Dicarboxylate Transporter (TDT) (Noc_0077, Noc_0542) which may be involved in transporting dicarboxylic acid intermediates, and a DAACS family di- tri-carboxylate/amino acid:cation symporter (Noc_1175, Noc_2446).

Export systems for organic and toxic compounds included ABC transporters for organic solvents (Noc_1746, Noc_2096, Noc_2782-2785), multidrug resistance (Noc_1779-1781, Noc_2141-2142, Noc_1835-1836, Noc_2644-2646, Noc_2832-2833), heme export (Noc_0946-

0948), dipeptides (Noc_0933-0936, Noc_2184-2185), polar amino acids (Noc_1558-1559), MFS-type arabinose efflux transporters (Noc_1547, Noc_1759, Noc_2803, Noc_3022), colicin export (Noc_0144-0145, Noc_2616), polysaccharide/polyol phosphate (Noc_1227-1228, Noc_2181-2182), lipoprotein export (Noc_1272-1273, Noc_2214-2216, Noc_2669-2670), as well as a transporter involved in lysophospholipase L1 biosynthesis (Noc_0427-0428). Unlike the uptake ABC transporters, these ABC transporters generally lacked any associated periplasmic component.

Nitrosococcus oceanii possesses several protein export and secretion systems including a preprotein translocase (Noc_2305), genes for exporting folded redox proteins via the sec-independent protein secretion system (TatABC, Noc_3058-3060), genes encoding Type II general secretion/pilus synthesis pathway, and genes encoding the Type IV conjugal DNA/protein transfer system.

Nitrosococcus oceanii has a cluster of genes encoding parts of a PTS-type sugar transport system. Specifically, genes for the E1 (Noc_2800), HPR (Noc_2799), an Ntr-type IIa (Noc_2795), a mannose/fructose-type IIa (Noc_2313), as well as an HPr kinase/phosphorylase (Noc_2796) were found. However, genes encoding components IIb, IIc, and IId were absent making it unlikely that *N. oceanii* expresses a functional sugar-transporting PTS system. Instead, as has been seen in other Proteobacteria, these genes may form part of a regulatory cascade involving RpoN (13).

Growth, sensing, responses and stress tolerance

Carbon fixation: The *N. oceanii* genome encodes a form I ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase (RuBisCO). The form I genes (*cbbL* and *cbbS*) occur in an operon with

cbbX and a hypothetical gene (Noc_0330-0333). The operon is preceded by a divergently transcribed *cbbR* gene (Noc_0334) encoding a LysR-type transcriptional regulator. The *cbbX* gene is required for efficient autotrophic growth in *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* (24) and is predicted to be an AAA-family ATPase (which can be involved in chaperonin-like functions).

Both prokaryotic/plant-type (Noc_1341) and eukaryotic-type (Noc_1132) carbonic anhydrases are encoded in the genome. There is no obvious candidate for a bicarbonate acquisition system, however. Furthermore, the genome of *N. oceani* lacks genes for carboxysome formation.

Genes for all enzymes to complete the Calvin-Benson-Bassham cycle are present. Transketolase, NAD-dependent glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (EC:1.2.1.12), phosphoglycerate kinase, pyruvate kinase, and fructose-1,6-bisphosphate aldolase are encoded by an operon (Noc_2804-2808), whereas fructose-1,6-/sedoheptulose-1,7-bisphosphatase (Noc_0021), ribose-5-phosphate isomerase (Noc_2667), and phosphoribulokinase (Noc_2826) are encoded by isolated genes. Genes encoding ribulose-5-phosphate 3-epimerase and phosphoglycolate phosphatase are grouped in an operon (Noc_2492-1493).

Due to the aforementioned homology of ammonia monooxygenase and particular methane monooxygenase as well as the hypothesized lateral transfer of genes, the genome of *N. oceani* was investigated for the presence of Carbon-1 (C1) metabolic pathways (see Table 4). Whereas the *N. oceani* genome does not contain the genes needed to fix carbon directly from methane or methanol via the RuMP or Serine pathways, it contains the genetic inventory to funnel C1-carbon into the Calvin-Benson-Basham cycle (Table 4). Remarkably, two independent pathways for formaldehyde oxidation to formate (Noc_1394 & Noc_1440 and Noc_2006) and two gene clusters encoding the capacity for formate dehydrogenation (Noc_1122-1124;

Noc_2559-2561) were identified. The identification of this inventory provides a theoretical explanation of earlier findings that labeled C1-carbon was assimilated into the biomass of ammonia-dependently growing *N. oceani* cultures (36, 71).

Phosphorus, Nitrogen and Sulfur cycling (→ **Figure 3. Potential roles of polyphosphate and pyrophosphate in *N. oceani*; Figure 4. Schematic representation of nitrogen metabolism in *N. oceani***): *Nitrosococcus oceani* appears to be an efficient phosphorus sink in the oceans (Fig. 3). Some of the uptake and processing capacity for phosphorus is arranged in the *N. oceani* genome as a super cluster of genes starting with gene Noc_2388 encoding polyphosphate kinase (EC:2.7.4.1), followed by a string of 8 genes (Noc_2394-2401) encoding exopolyphosphatase (EC:3.6.1.11), regulatory protein PhoU, the high-affinity, binding protein-dependent ABC transporter PstBACS, and the two-component system PhoRB. The genome also encodes an inorganic pyrophosphatase (Noc_1134; EC:3.6.1.1, COG0221) and a V-type H⁽⁺⁾-translocating pyrophosphatase (Noc_1901, COG3808). A gene homologue encoding the inorganic phosphate transporter, PitA, was not found in the *N. oceani* genome. Therefore, like in several archaea and yeasts, polyphosphate-copper complexes formed to control copper concentrations at levels above toxicity, may be removed from the cytoplasm by a phosphate:proton symport protein in the major facilitator superfamily unrelated to PitA (63). Taken together, *N. oceani* appears to have the capacity to utilize stored polyphosphate molecules as phosphagens for ATP synthesis, for substrate phosphorylation and the regulation of enzyme activity, for the direct generation of the proton motive force via pyrophosphate, and to detoxify copper (Fig. 3).

As a nitrifying bacterium, *N. oceani* affects the nitrogen cycle in its marine environment by assimilatory and dissimilatory activities (Fig. 4). While the ammonia oxidation capacity

641 (AMO, HAO; see above) of AOB link the oceanic pools of reduced (ammonia) and oxidized
 642 (nitrite) nitrogen, their classical denitrification capacity through dissimilatory nitrite reductase
 643 (NirK, EC:1.7.2.1, Noc_0089) and nitric oxide reductase (Nor, Noc_1847-1851) is likely a major
 644 source of nitrous oxide emitted from the oceans (20, 21, 57). Additionally, there are various
 645 genes that encode putative cytoplasmic (Noc_0889, Noc_2605) and exported (Noc_1542) multi-
 646 copper oxidases (MCO), and other MCOs that have been implicated in oxidation of NO_x such as
 647 the pan1-type MCO (Noc_0889), an alternative NO_x reductase (6). In contrast to its organization
 648 in the genome of *N. europaea*, where it is clustered in a four-gene operon with the NirK-type
 649 nitrite reductase (6, 16), the pan1-type MCO gene Noc_0889 is clustered, but not necessarily in
 650 the same transcriptional unit, with a gene encoding cytochrome P460 (Noc_0890) directly
 651 upstream of the *hao* gene cluster (7). Cytochrome P460 has been implicated in hydroxylamine
 652 detoxification in several bacteria including *N. oceanii* (9, 10, 31, 79). Because cytochrome P460
 653 can be reduced by NO and because of the physical proximity of the two genes in the *N. oceanii*
 654 genome, P460 and pan1-type MCO may be components of an alternative N-oxidation pathway
 655 that, in contrast to HAO, produces nitrite with NO as an intermediate. Considering the toxicity of
 656 NO, and the fact that AOB have a high O₂ consumption rate but tend to live near the oxic/anoxic
 657 interface, additional NO detoxification mechanisms that are operational under low O₂ conditions
 658 are likely necessary for survival of AOB (75). It is thus not surprising to find in the genome of *N.*
 659 *oceanii* a gene, *cycP*, that encodes a beta-sheet-structured cytochrome *c'* ("c'-beta"; Noc_2696).
 660 Alpha-helical cytochromes *c'* have been implicated in microaerobic NO sequestration and
 661 dehydrogenation by strains of the betaproteobacterial pathogen *Neisseria* (18, 19, 52, 64, 67). It
 662 has been proposed only recently that cytochrome *c'*-beta, which is evolutionarily related to and a
 663 putative redox partner of cytochrome P460 (8), has evolved from an alpha-helical monoheme

cytochrome *c* that is ancestral to both *c'* and *c'*-beta cytochromes (M.G. Klotz and A.B. Hooper, unpublished results). Both enzymes, *c'*-beta and P460, are also likely redox partners of the soluble periplasmic cytochrome *c*552 (Noc_0751) as are the 3 periplasmic di-heme cytochrome *c* peroxidases. The P460-heme coordination site, found in HAO and cytochrome P460, is highly sensitive to hydrogen peroxide (32); therefore, it is interesting that the *c'*-beta-encoding gene is clustered with one of the 3 di-heme cytochrome *c* peroxidase genes (Noc_2697), suggesting a dedicated protective function of key periplasmic enzymes by this peroxidase. The genome of *N. oceanii* also contains a gene encoding the red-copper protein, nitrosocyanin (Noc_1090), a putative enzyme with a cupredoxin fold (3, 55). Because this gene and the encoded protein have, so far, been uniquely found in a Beta-AOB (3, 16) and now also in a Gamma-AOB, its putative catalytic function is likely involved in and specific to ammonia-oxidizing catabolism. It appears that the catabolic dependence on ammonia oxidation and the ultimate production of reactive and toxic NO_x intermediates have imparted selective pressure on all AOB to maintain this suite of periplasmic enzymes because a similar complement of genes, albeit with different genomic organization, was also identified in the genome of *N. europaea* (16). It appears that the strategy of maintaining a complement of NO_x-detoxifying enzymes in the periplasm is similar to the strategy of active oxygen defense and designed to avoid the formation and presence of nitrosating agents such as nitrous anhydride in the cytoplasm, where they have mutagenic activity (75).

Ammonia is also the source for nitrogen assimilation and *N. oceanii* has the complete capacity for low (glutamate dehydrogenase) and high (glutamine synthetase; glutamine oxoglutarate aminotransferase/glutamate synthase) affinity ammonia assimilation. Glutamate synthase, small and large subunit-encoding genes were contiguous (Noc_1603–1604). In

addition, two genes encoding putative NADPH-ferredoxin-dependent glutamate synthase large chain proteins (Noc_2957, Noc_0101) were identified. Two NADPH specific forms of glutamate dehydrogenase were identified (Noc_2054, EC:1.4.1.3 and Noc_0864, EC:1.4.1.4). The GS-GOGAT system presumably functions at lower concentrations of ammonia. A glutamine synthetase type I (GSI, EC:6.3.1.2) is encoded by the *glnA* gene (Noc_2652). To avoid futile cycling, GSI activity is likely regulated by adenylation; the adenylyl-transferase encoded by gene *glnE* was identified (Noc_0135). Additional regulatory proteins encoded by *glnB* (Noc_0715) and *glnD* (Noc_0806) encoding a PII uridylyl-transferase (EC:2.7.7.59) were also identified. Because these genes have been identified in the *N. oceanii* genome, the regulation of N-uptake is likely dependent upon the ratio of glutamine and glutamate and proceeds via adenylylation of GS and uridylylation of proteins P_I and P_{II} as it has been experimentally determined for many other Gammaproteobacteria (50).

As a member of the Chromatiaceae, *N. oceanii* should participate in the sulfur cycle beyond acquiring sulfur for biosynthesis. The identified sulfate uptake capacity allows *N. oceanii* to acquire and process sulfate. Sulfate reduction may proceed via sulfate adenylyltransferase (*cysND*, Noc_2288-2289; EC:2.7.7.4) to adenosine phosphosulfate (APS) via adenylylsulphate kinase (*cysC*, Noc_2482, EC:2.7.1.25) to PAPS, and via phosphoadenosine phosphosulfate (PAPS) reductase (*cysH*, Noc_2290, EC:1.8.4.8) to sulfite, which may be further reduced to H₂S by an NADPH-dependent sulfite reductase, EC:1.8.1.2 (alpha-subunit CysI: Noc_1305, beta-subunit CysI: Noc_1306). Dihydrogen sulphide is required for cysteine biosynthesis and genes encoding a thioredoxin-disulphide reductase (Noc_0345, EC:1.8.1.9) and a thiol:disulphide interchange protein (Noc_0551) were identified, as was the gene encoding thiosulfate sulfurtransferase (Noc_0593, EC:2.8.1.1). The genome of *N. oceanii* also contains a gene cluster

that encodes a putative polysulphide reductase (*psr*, Noc_1238-1240), a monoheme cytochrome (*cccA*, Noc_1241), a transporter (Noc_1242), a cytochrome *c* oxidase (Noc_1244-1247), and the 5 genes encoding the ubiquinone complex (Noc_1248-1252). This cluster of genes is absent from the genomes of *N. europaea*, *N. eutropha*, *N. multiformis* and *N. winogradskyi* but is conserved (sequence and synteny) in the genomes of *N. hamburgensis*, *Rhodopirulella baltica*, *Cytophaga hutchinsonii* ATCC 3406 and *Cupriavidus necator* (Ralstonia eutropha JMP134). Functional polysulphite reductase is a molybdopterin oxidoreductase complex that has been experimentally described to act as a quinole oxidase in *Wolinella succinogenes* (41, 42). Analysis of the *N. oceani* genome did not reveal a molybdopterin guanine dinucleotide-binding protein subunit-encoding gene in the vicinity of the cluster. This putative polysulphide reductase activity awaits experimental verification in *N. oceani*, which would indicate the residence of an alternative catalytic center for polysulphide reduction. If present, this molybdopterin oxidoreductase could theoretically also be involved in the anaerobic reduction of nitrate, chlorate, selenate or other highly oxidized minerals thereby accommodating electron disposal in a microaerophilic environment near the oxic/anoxic interface.

In contrast to many other purple sulfur bacteria, the genome of *N. oceani* lacked genes for the formation of internal or external granules of sulfur compounds.

Cellular growth and motility: The genome of *N. oceani* contains almost all the typical complement of genes with an identified role in cell cycle and division of other Gammaproteobacteria such as *E. coli*. The genome clearly lacks the genes encoding FtsEX (involved in localization and stabilization of the septal ring), FtsN and SulA. On the other hand, the genome contains three genes (Noc_0272, Noc_1903, and Noc_2569) encoding proteins with domains (conserved zinc-binding motif HEXXH, ATPase domain, peptidase domain) matching

the cell division metalloprotease, FtsH (COG0465). An alignment of all three FtsH proteins showed that they differ in sequence mostly at their N- and C-termini, which flank the ATPase and peptidase domains.

Flagellation and motility are encoded in the *N. oceanii* genome in two large gene clusters (Noc_2354-2378; Noc_2155-2166) and several smaller clusters (Noc_0833-0834; Noc_0124-0131; NOC2052-2053 and Noc_2683-Noc_2685). The master switch operon *flhCD* was not identified and is likely absent as from the genomes of other AOB. As a likely adaptation to life in the open ocean, *N. oceanii* appears to have only limited chemotactic capacity because just one methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein (Noc_0128) of the PilJ-type was identified. In contrast, the genome of *N. europaea* contained 3 MCPs (16). The presence of a sodium-driven polar flagellar motor protein (MotA, Noc_0833), which can assemble with the product of the adjacent *pomB* gene (Noc_0834) in addition to the usual pmf-dependent flagellar rotation mechanism, may be an adaptation to *N. oceanii*'s marine lifestyle.

Two-component systems (-> Table 5. **Two-component systems**): Considering the reductive evolution of AOB as concluded from analysis of the *N. europaea* genome (16), the genome of *N. oceanii* harbored an impressive complement of complete two-component systems. The genome contained 13 genes encoding histidine protein kinases (HPK) of which 12 were paired (mostly succeeded) by a response regulator (RR). In addition, 1 HPK and 11 RR-encoding orphaned genes were identified (Tables 4 and S3). One of the HPK genes (Noc_1756) was succeeded by a tandem of 2 RR genes (Noc_1757-1758).

The *N. oceanii* genome also contained 6 hybrid genes whose deduced protein sequence contained respective HPK and RR domains (Tab. 4). One of these hybrid-HPK genes (Noc_1700) was paired with a gene encoding a RR in the LuxR/FixJ family (Noc_1701) and is

adjacent to other HPK- and RR-encoding genes. This may suggest that the RR domain in the hybrid kinase has a regulatory phosphotransferase function in a phosphorylation cascade.

Stress Tolerance: In comparison with other AOB, the *N. oceani* genome contains only a limited inventory that contributes to stress tolerance in general and oxidative stress tolerance in particular. The genome encodes a heme-containing monofunctional large subunit catalase (KatE; Noc_1165) and an iron-containing superoxide dismutase (Fe-SOD; Noc_2428), both of which are supplied with iron and heme by bacterioferritin (Bfr; Noc_1411). The genome also contains genes encoding glutaredoxin (Noc_2427), thioredoxin (TRX, Noc_0603, Noc_2583) and a thioredoxin-dependent peroxide reductase (AhpC, peroxiredoxin; Noc_1307); but lacks genes for bacterioferritin-comigratory protein, NADH-peroxiredoxin reductase (AhpF), glutathione oxidoreductase and other isozymes of hydroperoxidases (KatG, KatA, Mn-Cat) and SOD (Mn-SOD, Cu/Zn-SOD). Like *N. europaea*, the genome also lacks genes for OxyR redox-autoregulatory protein, which regulates oxidative stress tolerance (KatG, AhpC, SOD), iron and zinc transport proteins (Fur, Zur) and the stationary phase-specific sigma factor, RpoS, in many bacteria. In contrast to *N. europaea*, which lacks an RpoS gene, the genome of *N. oceani* contains two genes encoding RpoS (sigma-38; Noc_0183, Noc_1702). RpoS is known to regulate hydroperoxidase (KatE) and the cell shape protein BolA (Noc_2387). *Nitrosococcus oceani* seems minimally prepared to respond to other stresses. In addition to two genes that encode the minimal growth sigma factor RpoD (sigma-70; Noc_0045, Noc_2066), the genome contains genes that encode alternative sigma factors involved in heat (RpoH, sigma-32; Noc_1935) and extreme heat (RpoE, sigma-24; Noc_2463) stresses, nitrogen starvation (RpoN, sigma-54; Noc_2793) and the need to move by flagellar motility (FliA, sigma-28; Noc_2155). Despite the absence of the flagellar master operon (*flhCD*), FliA-dependent regulation of a

complete complement of flagella synthesis and chemotaxis gene clusters is aided by the presence of only one methyl-accepting chemotaxis protein (MCP) of the pseudomonad PilJ-type (with MA and HAMP domains; Noc_0128) whereas other MCPs in the Tar (CheM), Tsr (CheD), Tap and Aer categories were absent from the genome. In addition, the *N. oceani* genome did not contain genes with significant similarity to the two-component regulatory systems LasRI/RhlR involved in homoserine lactone autoinducer synthesis (quorum sensing) as well as the regulation of motility, virulence, starvation response and iron homeostasis in several Gammaproteobacteria. The ferric uptake regulation protein (Fur; Noc_1194) regulates, for instance, ferric citrate (FecIR) and ferrichrome (*fhu* operon) transport, exotoxin synthesis and the expression of hydroperoxidases in many proteobacteria. Interestingly, the zinc uptake regulation protein (Zur; Noc_2424) was found adjacent to a gene cluster that encodes a binding protein-dependent zinc ABC transporter system (Noc_2421-2423) in the genome.

CONCLUSIONS

Nitrosococcus oceani is one of only two known ammonia-oxidizing bacteria classified as Gammaproteobacteria, while the large majority of isolated ammonia-oxidizing bacteria are classified as Betaproteobacteria. The genome sequence of the Betaproteobacterium *N. europaea* is available and facilitates a comparison of the genes most similar between these two bacteria. Of the 224 genes in *N. oceani* that were most similar to genes from *N. europaea*, 76 were classified as hypothetical or proteins of unknown function. These hypothetical and unknown proteins are slightly over-represented (34%) in this subset of genes relative to genes without function prediction in the complete *N. oceani* (31.5%) and *N. europaea* (29%) genomes. Whereas the

number of genes without function and without similarity to other known genes (hypothetical ORFs) is 10 times higher in the *N. europaea* (4.7%) vs. the *N. oceanii* (0.57%) genome, the number of genes without function but with similarity to genes in other genomes (conserved hypothetical ORFs) was significantly higher in the *N. oceanii* genome (30.9%) compared to *N. europaea* (24.4%). For those genes assigned a function, the functions included central carbon and nitrogen metabolism, electron transport, gene regulation, and transport. The *N. europaea*-like genes were distributed throughout the *N. oceanii* genome. Most of these genes were not flanked by additional *N. europaea*-like genes, though in some cases two or three such genes were contiguous. A cluster of *N. europaea*-like genes was present from Noc_1955 to Noc_1986 where 20 of these 31 genes were most similar to *N. europaea* genes. As additional genome sequences become available, it will be of interest to carry out more detailed comparisons of the genes in common among the ammonia-oxidizing bacteria. Of particular interest will be the uncharacterized genes, some of which may encode functions unique to the use of ammonia as a growth substrate whereas others maybe responsible for the difference between marine and the freshwater-sediment-soil AOB in their abilities to form nitrification consortia (e.g., AOB and NOB). Progress in ongoing and future research with nitrosococci will be made available at the nitrosococcus project website (<http://nitrosococcus.org>).

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1051

TABLES**Table 1. General features of *N. ocean*i ATCC19707[#]**

	Number	% of Total
DNA, total number of bases	3522111	100.00%
DNA coding number of bases	3055969	86.77%
DNA G+C number of bases	1773098	50.34%
DNA scaffolds	2	100.00%
Genes total number	3183	100.00%
Protein coding genes	3132	98.40%
RNA genes	51	1.60%
rRNA genes	6	0.19%
5S rRNA	2	0.06%
16S rRNA	2	0.06%
23S rRNA	2	0.06%
tRNA genes	45	1.41%
Other RNA genes	0	0.00%
Genes with function prediction	2130	66.92%
<u>Genes without function prediction</u>	1002	31.48%
Genes w/o function with similarity	984	30.91%
Genes w/o function w/o similarity	18	0.57%
Pseudo Genes	80	2.51%
Genes assigned to enzymes	364	11.44%
Genes connected to KEGG pathways	273	8.58%
Genes not connected to KEGG pathways	2859	89.82%
Genes in ortholog clusters	2901	91.14%
Genes in paralog clusters	365	11.47%
Genes in COGs	2435	76.50%
Genes in Pfam	2188	68.74%
Genes in InterPro	2065	64.88%
Genes with MyIMG Annotation	0	0.00%
Pfam clusters	1486	20.48%

[#]Derived from the DOE-JGI IMG server: <http://img.jgi.doe.gov>

1087 **Table 2. Mobile elements in the genome of *N. ocean*i ATCC19707**

1088

	No. of ORFs		No. of	Comments and
^a Repeat #	in repeat	Predicted product	copies	additional copies
1	2 orfs	transposases	15	
2	1 orf	transposase	3	
3	2 orfs	transposases	2	1 degenerate copy
4	1 orf	transposase	2	
5	1 orf	hypothetical (with signal peptide at N-term)	3	1 degenerate copy
6	1 orf	transposase	3	
7	1 orf	Fatty acid desaturase	2	
10	1 orf	phage integrase	2	
12	1 orf	Phosphoenolpyruvate protein phosphatase	2	only portion
13	1 orf	EF-Tu	2	
14	1 orf	Ammonia permease (most of gene length)	2	

1089

1090 ^aFor individual listing of repeats refer to Table S1 in the online supplement.

Table 3. Transporters in the genome of *N. ocean*i ATCC19707

Transporter Type ^a	Number of genes (% Total) ^b	Function
ATP-Dependent	98 (3.2%)	Substrate transport driven by ATP hydrolysis
Ion Channels	10 (0.3%)	Energy-independent facilitated diffusion
PTS System	4 (0.1%)	PEP-dependent Phosphotransferase
Secondary Transporters	78 (2.5%)	Electrochemical potential-driven transporters
Type II Secretion	15 (0.5%)	General secretory pathway
Type IV Secretion	14 (0.5%)	Conjugal DNA-Protein Transfer
Iron uptake	22 (0.7%)	Permeases and TonB-dependent Fe-siderophore receptors
Unclassified	27 (0.9%)	

^aFor individual listing of repeats refer to Table S2 in the online supplement.^b3093 total protein encoding genes.

Table 4. C1-carbon metabolism in the genome of *N. oceanus* ATCC19707 in comparison with the genomes of the methanotroph, *M. capsulatus* (Bath) and the beta-AOB *N. europaea*.

Process	Protein	<i>Nitrosococcus oceanus</i>	<i>Methylococcus capsulatus</i>
* Methane oxidation to methanol	AMO / pMMO (EC 1.13.12.-)	Noc_2501-2503	MCA1796-1798, MCA0295, MCA2853-2855
* Methanol oxidation to formaldehyde	Soluble methane monooxygenase (EC 1.14.13.25)	Not present	MCA1194-1205
	Methanol dehydrogenase cluster (EC:1.1.99.8)	Not present	MCA0299-0300, MCA0778-0789, MCA1525, 1528-1530
	Protein with PQQ repeat domain (EC:1.1.99.-)	Noc_0821	MCA2891
	Pyrrolo-quinoline quinone (PQQ) proteins	Noc_2620-2623	MCA1445-1449
* Formaldehyde (FA) oxidation to formate			
Glutathione (GSH)-Dependent Pathway	Dye-linked FA DH (EC:1.2.99.3)	Noc_2006	MCA2155
S-hydroxy methyl-GSH to S-formyl GSH	GSH-dependent FA DH (EC:1.2.1.1)	Noc_1394	not present
S-formyl GSH to formate	GSH S-transferase (EC:3.1.2.12)	Noc_1440	not present
Tetrahydrofolate (THF)-Dependent Pathway			
Condensation of THF with formaldehyde	5,10-methylene THF reductase (EC:1.7.99.5)	Noc_2680	MCA0137
Methylene THF to methenyl THF	Methylene THF DH (EC:1.5.99.9)	not present	MCA0508,
	Methylene THF DH (EC:1.5.1.5)	Noc_2248	MCA3018, MCA3019
Methenyl THF to formyl THF	Methenyl THF cyclohydrolase (EC:3.5.4.9)	not present	MCA0507
Formyl THF to formate	Formyl THF hydrolase (EC:3.5.1.10)	Noc_1789	not present
Formyl THF to formate	5-formyl THF cyclo-ligase (EC:6.3.3.2)	not present	MCA2773
Tetrahydromethanopterin (THMPT)-Dependent Pathway			
Condensation of THMPT with FA	Formaldehyde activating enzyme (EC:4.3.-.-)	not present	MCA2778
Methylene THMPT to methenyl THMPT	Methylene THMPT DH (EC:1.5.99.9)	not present	MCA0508,
	Methylene THMPT DH (EC:1.5.1.5)	Noc_2248	MCA3018, MCA3019
Methenyl THMPT to formyl THMPT	Methenyl THMPT cyclohydrolase (EC:3.5.4.27)	not present	MCA2863
Formyl THMPT to formate	Formyltransferase/hydrolase complex (EC:1.2.99.5 & EC:2.3.1.101)	Noc_0022-0025	MCA2857-2860
* Formate oxidation to CO₂	Formate dehydrogenase (EC:1.2.1.2)	Noc_1122-1124	MCA1391-1393,
	Formate dehydrogenase (EC:1.2.1.43)	Noc_2559-2561	MCA2576-2577,
		not present	MCA1208-1210
* C₁ Assimilation			
Ribulose Monophosphate Pathway	Hexulose 6-P synthase (EC:4.1.2.-)	not present	MCA3043, MCA3049
	Hexulose 6-P isomerase (EC:5.3.-.-)	not present	MCA3044, MCA3050
Serine Cycle	Malate dehydrogenase (EC:1.1.1.37)	not present	MCA0610
	Malyl-CoA synthetase (EC:6.2.1.9)	not present	not present
	Malyl-CoA lyase (EC: 4.1.3.24)	not present	MCA1739

1137 **Table 5[#]. Two-component systems in the genome of *N. oceani* ATCC19707**

1138

Response Regulators	25
Paired	14*
Orphaned	11
Histidine Kinases	13
Paired	12
Orphaned	1
Hybrids	6

1139

1140 [#]For individual listing of Two-component systems refer to Table S3 in the online supplement.

1141 *RRs Noc_1757 and Noc_1758 both may be paired with HK Noc_1756

1142 *HK-RR Noc_1700 may be paired with RR Noc_1701

1143

FIGURE LEGENDS

Fig. 1. Transmission electron micrograph of *Nitrosococcus oceani* ATCC 19707. Cultures of *N. oceani* were grown until slowing readjustment of the pH with sodium carbonate indicated the beginning transition of the culture into stationary growth phase. Cells were harvested by centrifugation and sent to the University of Wisconsin-Madison Electron Microscopy facility for further processing and electron microscopy. The scale bar at the lower right (500 nm) indicates the average cell size of 1.5 μ m in diameter.

Fig. 2. (A) The chromosome and (B) circular plasmid of *Nitrosococcus oceani* ATCC 19707. The outer two circles depict predicted protein-encoding and structural-RNA genes on the plus and minus strand, respectively (green, energy metabolism; red, DNA replication; magenta, transcription; yellow, translation; orange, amino acid metabolism; dark blue, carbohydrate metabolism; pale red, nucleotide metabolism; black, coenzyme metabolism; cyan, lipid metabolism; light blue, cellular processes; brown, general function; gray, hypothetical and conserved hypothetical genes; pale green, structural RNAs). Circles 3 and 4 (in panel A only) indicate on the plus and minus strand, respectively, the locations of the two *rrn* operons (black), loci involved in ammonia and urea catabolism (blue), loci involved in electron transfer and the generation of reducing equivalents (red), and predicted terminal electron acceptors (green). The two inner circles indicate GC bias and GC skew.

Fig. 3 Proposed roles of polyphosphate and pyrophosphate in the cell of *Nitrosococcus oceani*. The figure illustrates the mechanisms for phosphate uptake and the proposed flow of

phosphate, pyrophosphate and polyphosphate and their involvement in energy metabolism (ATP, pmf), central pathways (PP-Pfk) and stress tolerance (Copper detox) in the *N. oceani* cell. The proposed phosphate-proton exchanger to remove polyphosphate-copper complexes has yet to be experimentally identified.

Fig. 4 Schematic representation of nitrogen metabolism in *Nitrosococcus oceani*. The figure illustrates transport and metabolism of nitrogenous compounds and provides involved proteins identified by their gene numbers. Nitrogen is either acquired as an inorganic compound in form of ammonia/ammonium or as an organic compound in form of urea, which is hydrolyzed by urea hydrolase (UreABC) to ammonia and carbon dioxide. For synthesis, nitrogen can be assimilated from ammonia into glutamate via GDH (GdhA) or the GS-GOGAT (GlnA, GltBD) pathways. For catabolism, ammonia is oxidized by AMO and HAO and the extracted electrons are used to reduce the quinone pool via cytochromes *c554* and *cm552*. Some of these electrons are employed to generate pmf by the cytochrome *bc₁* complex and these electrons are then relayed to a terminal electron acceptor (COXaa₃, Cu-NIR, Cyt *c'*, NORbb₃, etc.) via cytochrome *c552*. The question marks indicate that the active site of ammonia monooxidation by AMO needs to be still elucidated and that the annotation of AmtB-type ammonia transport genes needs experimental verification.

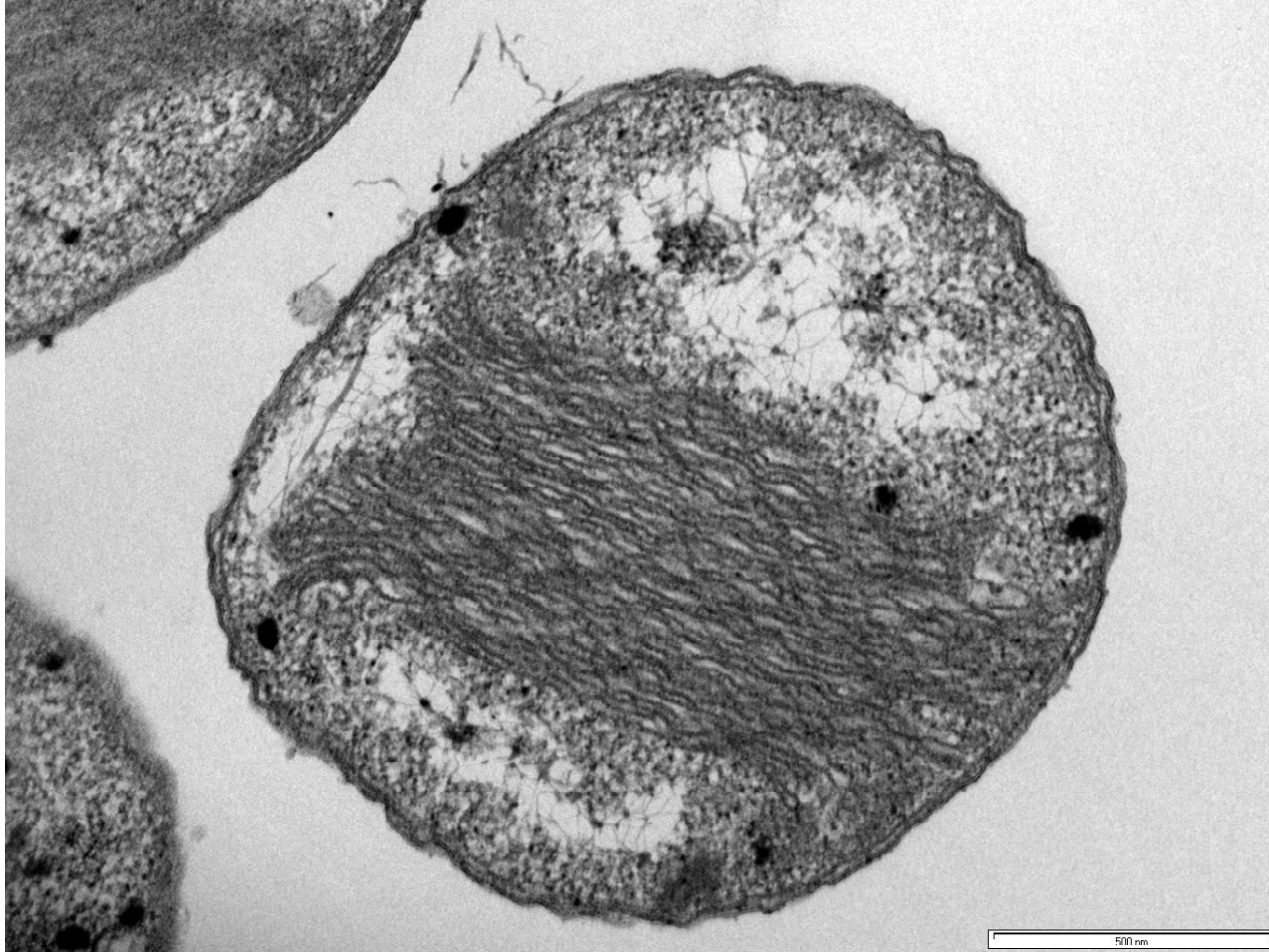


Fig. 1

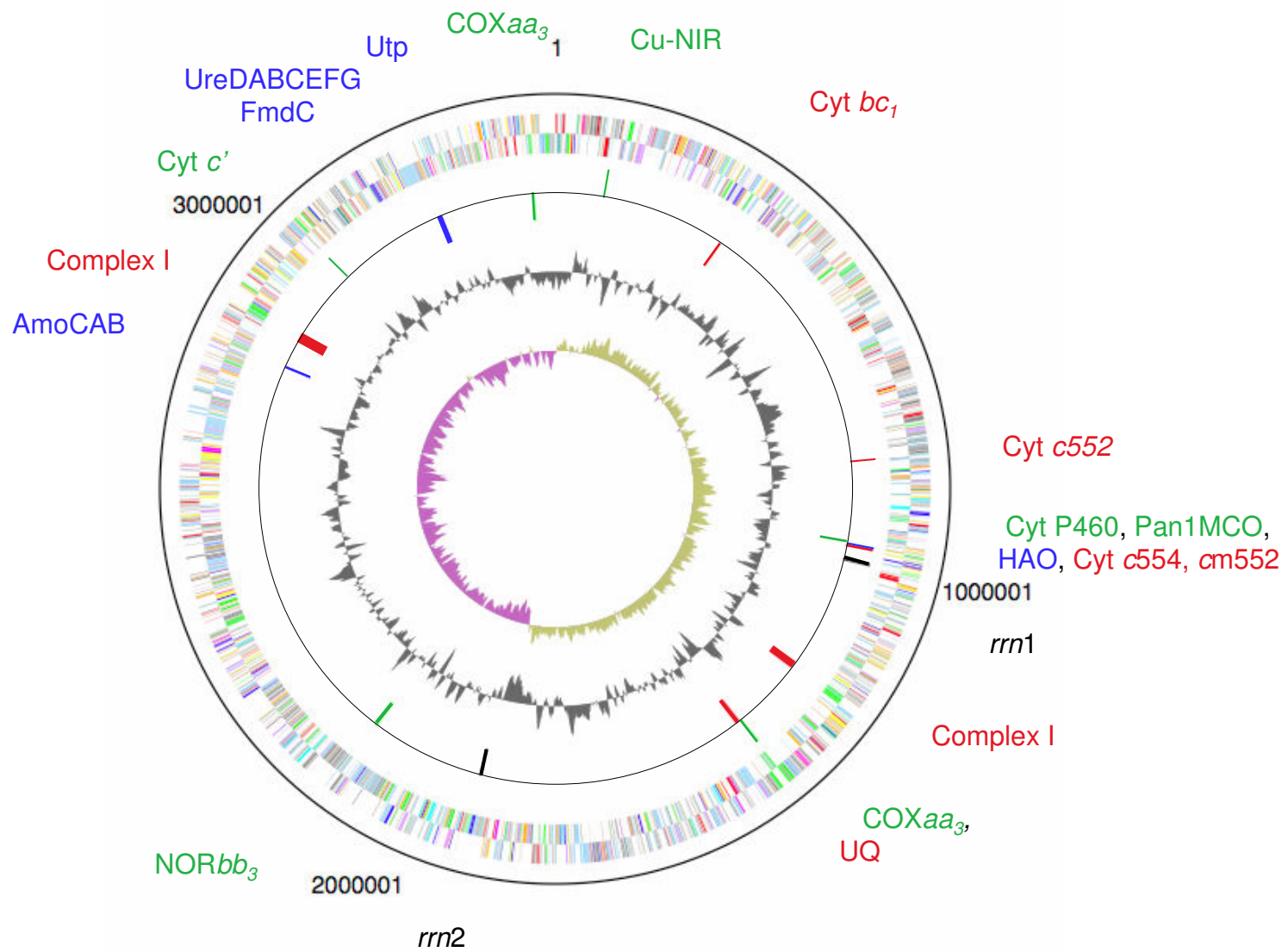


Fig. 2A

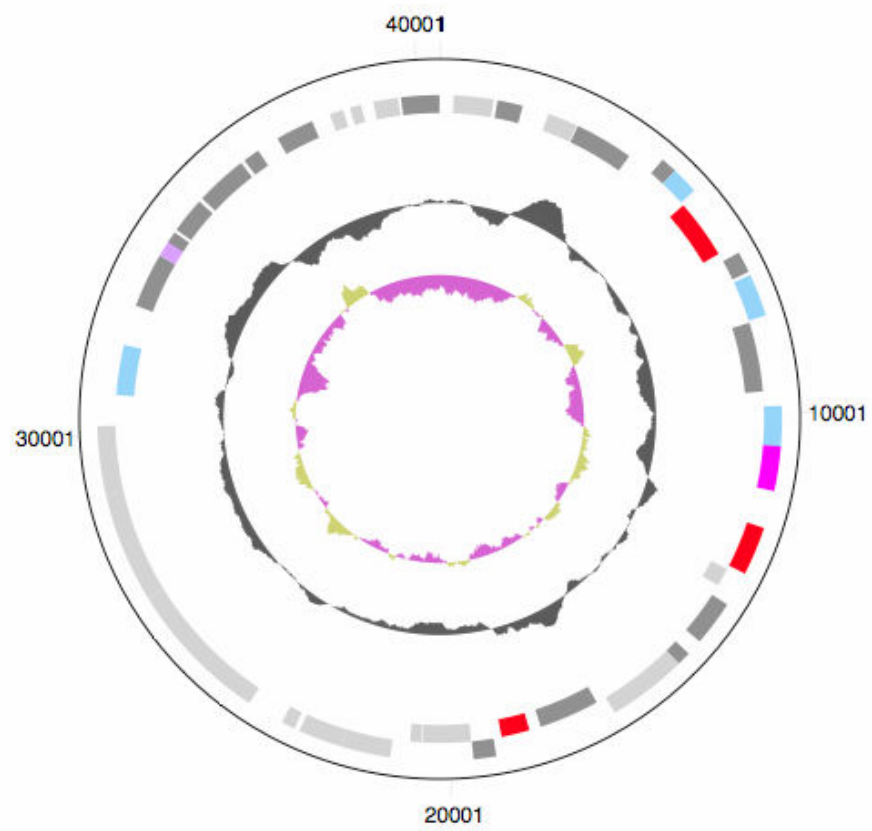


Fig. 2B

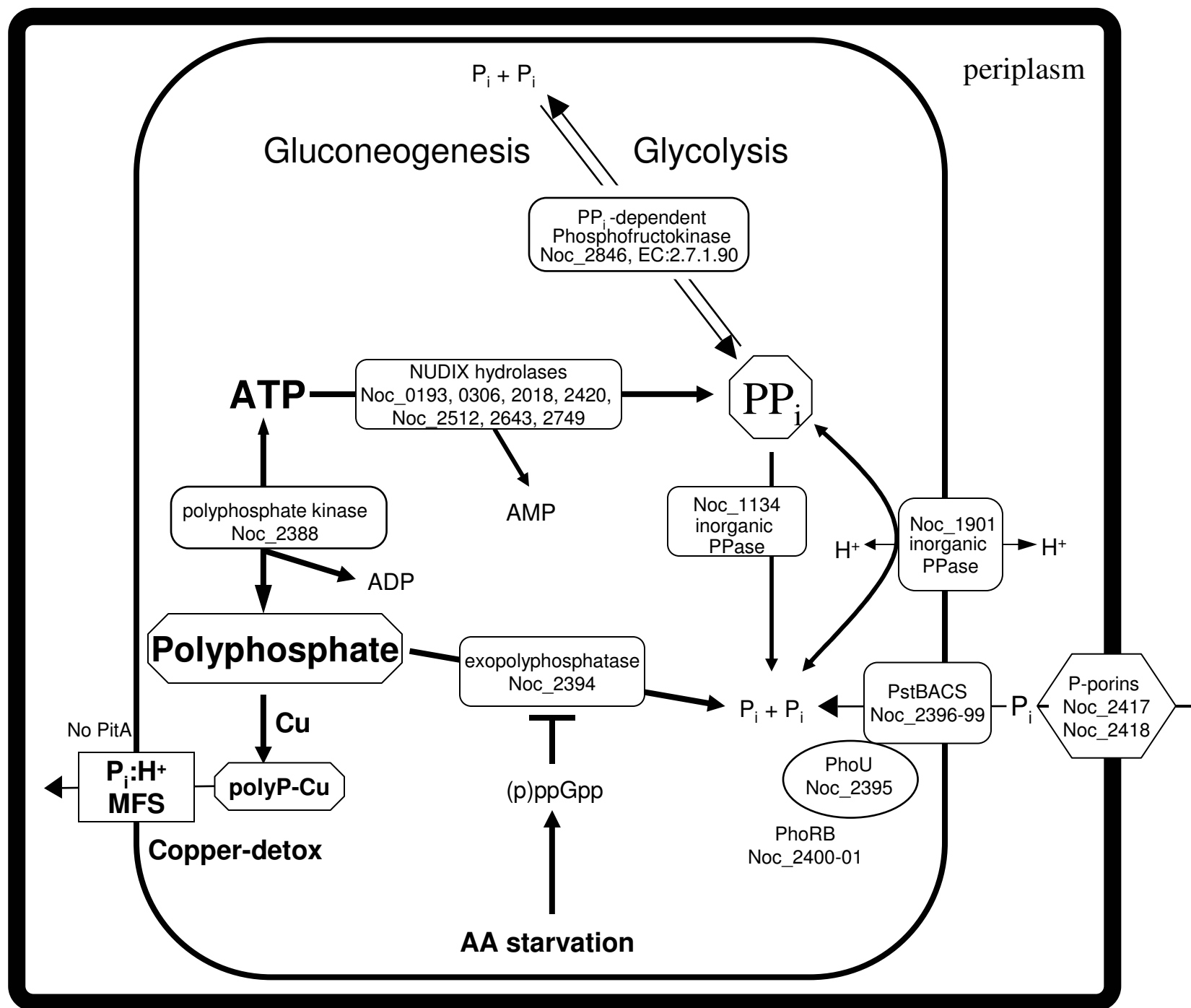


Fig. 3

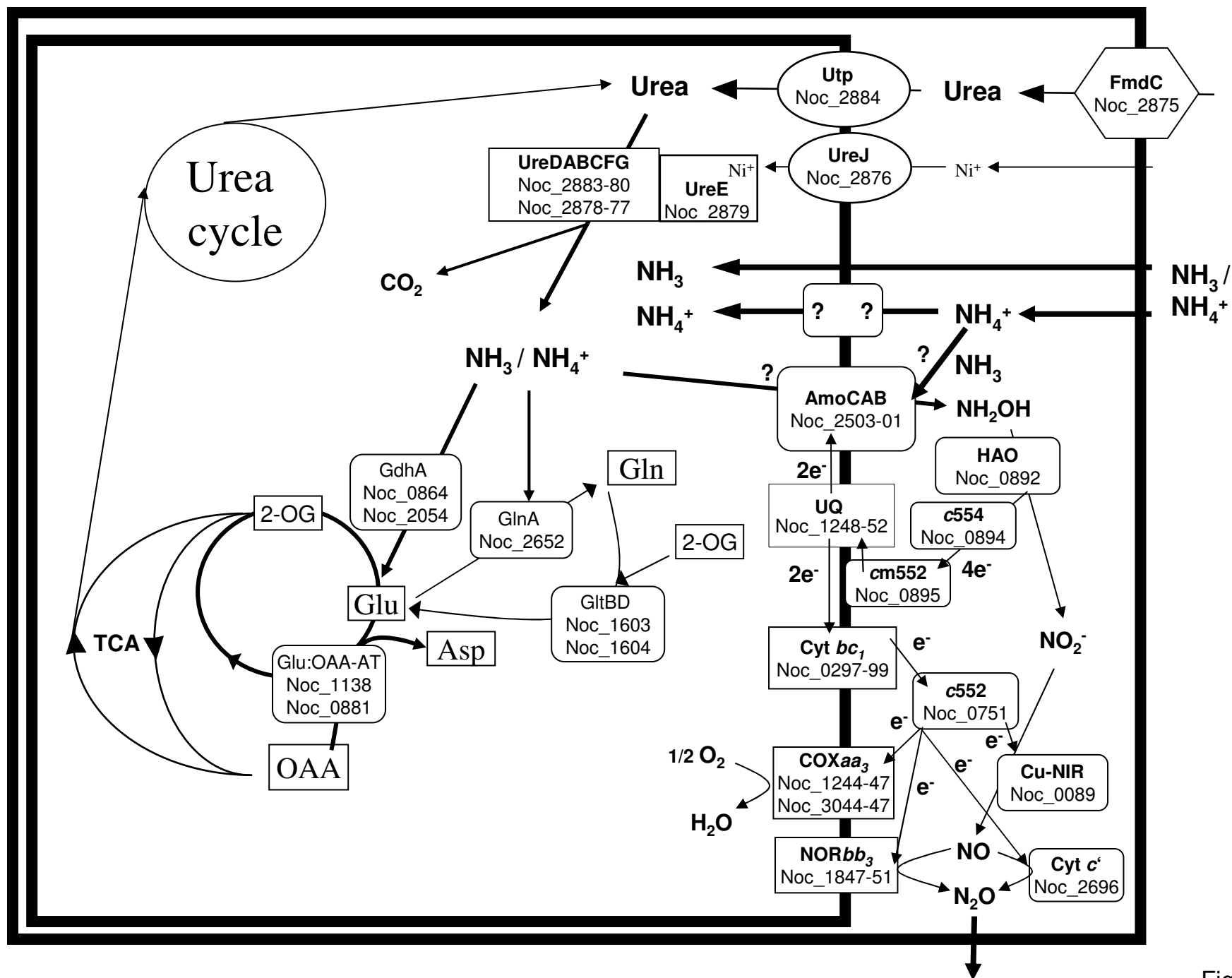


Fig. 4